DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 040 396 AL 002 450

AUTHOR	Slager, William R., Ed.; Madsen, Betty M., Ed.
TITLE	English for American Indians: A Newsletter of the Office of Education Programs, Bureau of Indian Affairs, United States Department of the Interior.
INSTITUTION	Utah Univ., Salt Lake City.
SPONS AGENCY	Bureau of Indian Affairs (Dept. of Interior), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	70
NOTE	64p.
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC-$3.30
DESCRIPTORS	*American Indians, Annotated Bibliographies, Anthologies, Beginning Reading, Bilingual Education, Cultural Context, *English (Second Language), Instructional Materials, Navaho, *Reading Instruction, *Reading Materials, *Reading Programs, Reference Materials, Second Language Learning, Teaching Methods, Tenl, Textbook Evaluation, Writing

ABSTRACT

This Bureau of Indian Affairs publication focuses on the problems of beginning reading in English. Ralph Robinett's "The Teaching of English Reading to American Indian Children" discusses basic premises and approaches to reading for speakers of English as a second language or as a standard dialect. The "Information Exchange" describes projects and reports primarily concerned with the Navajo--a reading study, a reading survey, a kindergarten program, and an orthography conference. Reviewed also are articles by Roger Shuy, William Labov, and Ronald Wardhaugh, and an anthology edited by A. C. Aarons, B. Y. Gordon, and W. A. Stewart. The subjects reviewed cover reading materials, problems, and instruction, and linguistic-cultural differences in American education. The "Materials" section describes the Sullivan Programmed Readers, the Miami Linguistic Readers, the Alaskan Readers, and readers for Cherokee, Hopi, and Apache. See ED 026 629, ED 027 546, and ED 029 298 for the first three "English for American Indians" publications. (AMM)

PRINTED BY THE STANDARD REGISTER COMPANY, U. S. A.

FORM 0801

ENGLISH FOR AMERICAN INDIANS

ED040396

A Newsletter of the Office of
Education Programs
Bureau of Indian Affairs
United States Department of the Interior

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

AL 002 450

SPRING 1970

ED040396

ENGLISH FOR AMERICAN INDIANS

A Newsletter of the Office of
Education Programs
Bureau of Indian Affairs
United States Department of the Interior

AL 002 450

UNIVERSITY OF UTAH

William R. Slager, Editor
Betty M. Madsen, Assistant Editor

SPRING 1970

United States Department of the Interior

Walter J. Hickel, Secretary

BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS

Louis R. Bruce, Commissioner

OFFICE OF THE
ASSOCIATE COMMISSIONER FOR EDUCATION AND PROGRAMS

William J. Benham, Acting Associate Commissioner

Division of Curriculum Development and Review

Thomas R. Hopkins, Chief

ENGLISH FOR AMERICAN INDIANS is a newsletter intended for teachers and other educators who are involved with the teaching of English in the educational system of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. It is prepared for the BIA by the University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112, under the direction of William R. Slager and Betty M. Madsen. Correspondence concerning distribution and editorial content should be directed to Mr. Tom Hopkins, Division of Curriculum Development and Review, Office of Education Programs, Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1951 Constitution Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20242.

Cover design courtesy The Smithsonian Institution

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Foreword iv
Editor's Note v

BEGINNING READING IN ENGLISH, by Ralph F. Robinett . 1

INFORMATION EXCHANGE

Projects and Reports
- Navajo Reading Study 13
- ESL Evaluation on the Navajo 20
- Survey of Reading Performance of Third Grade Children in Utah 21
- Navajo Kindergarten Program 22
- Conference on Navajo Orthography 23
- Curriculum Bulletin No. 6: Teaching English to Speakers of Choctaw, Navajo, and Papago . 25
- ERIC Documents 26

Reviews of Articles
- Developing Beginning Reading Materials for Ghetto Children, by Roger Shuy 27
- Some Sources of Reading Problems, by William Labov 29
- Some Linguistic Insights into Reading Instruction, by Ronald Wardhaugh 30
- Linguistic-Cultural Differences and American Education, edited by A. C. Aarons, B. Y. Gordon, and W. A. Stewart 32

MATERIALS

- Sullivan Programmed Readers 33
- Miami Linguistic Readers 37
- Alaskan Readers 43
- Readers in Indian Languages
  - Cherokee 49
  - Hopi 52
  - Apache 55

FOREWORD

We are pleased to announce that English for American Indians will be under the direction of Dr. William R. Slager, Professor of English at the University of Utah. Professor Slager has for many years been concerned with the teaching of English to speakers of other languages and is well-known to those who have worked in the TESOL field. He has had three State Department grants to teach English abroad and to organize courses for teachers: twice in Egypt and once in Mexico. He has also lectured and consulted on short assignments in Syria, Italy, Spain, Poland, the Fiji Islands, and India. In this country he has taught ESL and teachers of ESL at the University of Michigan and UCLA as well as at Utah. And he has conducted workshops throughout the Southwest--in Gallup, in Albuquerque, in El Paso. He was one of the team of consultants chosen by the Center for Applied Linguistics to conduct a study of the teaching of English in BIA schools. At present he is a member of the National Advisory Council on the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language. In addition to his teaching and consulting, Dr. Slager has been active in the preparation of materials. Perhaps he is best known for the six-volume English for Today series, produced by the National Council of Teachers of English and published by McGraw-Hill.

Dr. Slager is being assisted by Betty M. Madsen, a public school teacher with several years' experience in the elementary school classroom. She is now a graduate student at the University of Utah, completing requirements for a degree in linguistics with an emphasis on ESL. Mrs. Madsen has also had experience editing materials for publication and has published an article in the Utah Historical Quarterly.

An intense concern with improving the reading skills of minority groups in this country makes the present issue of English for American Indians, with its emphasis on reading, a timely one. We feel you will find it interesting and useful. As in the past, we would be most interested in your comments.

Thomas R. Hopkins, Chief
Division of Curriculum Development and Review

EDITOR'S NOTE

The first three issues of English for American Indians, through its "Information Exchange" and "Teacher's Bookshelf," presented an over-all view of relevant projects and available materials, ranging broadly to include many items of interest to those who were involved in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages. In the next three issues of this newsletter, our aim is to focus on certain topics and develop them in more detail, to bring to the teacher some of the questions that are being raised about critical matters in the area of language teaching and provide a basis for discussion and debate.

The present issue has the teaching of reading as its focus. The lead article, by Mr. Ralph Robinett of the Michigan Migrant Workers Council, outlines some of the basic premises and approaches to be considered in teaching reading to speakers of other languages or of dialects divergent from the standard to be found in most available texts. Mr. Robinett, who has had broad experience as a teacher, a supervisor, and a writer of materials in Puerto Rico, is perhaps best known for his work on the Miami Linguistic Readers. Since that series is widely used on the Navajo reservation and has been field tested there, we felt that many of our readers would be interested in Mr. Robinett's views on the teaching of reading.

The "Information Exchange" is largely devoted to reports on projects related to reading. The longest report is on the Navajo Reading Study being developed by Professor Spolsky at the University of New Mexico. Because Professor Spolsky's study includes a number of interesting approaches to the teaching of reading in the mother tongue, among them the necessity for basing materials on an actual language sample, we felt that the project deserved to be reported in some detail. Pertinent bibliographical references, which can be consulted by the teacher have been included in the report. The Conference on Navajo Orthography also raised crucial questions about the teaching of reading in the mother tongue.

A second section of the "Information Exchange" reviews briefly three articles, all of which will be of immediate

interest to the teacher of reading. Dr. Wardhaugh, of the University of Michigan, has written an article on the application of linguistics to reading, which many teachers (who have heard about or may now be using "linguistic readers") may wish to consult. The two other articles are by Dr. Shuy, of the Center for Applied Linguistics, and Dr. Labov, of Columbia University. Although both scholars have concentrated their studies recently on the dialect of ghetto children, their conclusions about reading have application to all second dialect situations.

In the final section, "Materials," we have chosen to describe to some extent three sets of readers that should be of immediate interest to teachers of Indian children. The first series, the Sullivan Programmed Readers, was not prepared specifically for ESL but is presently being used by many teachers in areas where children come to school with a language other than English. The report, in the main a description of items available in the program, points out certain matters that the teacher of ESL must keep in mind in using the series. The second report is on the Miami Linguistic Readers, which were developed especially to meet the needs of children in the ESL classroom. The series does not, however, take into account the special needs of any group of American Indian children. The third long report is on the Alaskan Readers, which have been specifically designed to meet the needs of Indian children in our forty-ninth state. The last part of this section, which we plan to continue in the next two issues, presents brief descriptions, along with sample pages, of readers available in Indian languages.

In conclusion, we would like to urge all teachers who have American Indian students in their classes to send us announcements and descriptions of materials and projects that would be of interest to our readers. And we would also like to encourage these teachers to help us by providing specific suggestions for the content of future issues. The newsletter has, after all, only one purpose: to bring to the classroom teacher ideas and information of immediate practical value.

William R. Slager
Betty M. Madsen
University of Utah
Salt Lake City, Utah 84112

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH READING TO AMERICAN INDIAN CHILDREN

By Ralph F. Robinett

The range of problems faced in English reading instruction by teachers of American Indian children is no doubt as broad as that faced by teachers of reading as a whole. And within this diversity the teachers share problems which are common to reading instruction throughout the country as well as problems which are unique to their particular areas and classrooms. Among the widespread concerns are the nature of the reading process, its relation to the English language and writing systems, and the uses to which English reading is put as the children learn to read and after the process has been mastered. Some of the reading-related problems of special concern, not limited to teachers of Indian children, center around the language or languages spoken in the children's homes, the dominant language as reflected by the children's preference for communication in and out of school, and the language or languages of instruction.

Many classroom teachers and specialists from the field of reading instruction have viewed with scepticism and even alarm attempts to isolate into constituents the range of behaviors covered by the heading reading. There seems to be reluctance to analyze reading, however broadly defined, into its component parts and focus on the priorities. As pointed out by Wardhaugh, the danger of broad, superficial goals lies in not knowing just what we are dealing with as instructional problems (pp. 3-4).

The importance of putting the various facets of reading in proper perspective has been clearly documented from within the field of reading itself. After three years of exhaustive study of the available research in reading instruction, Chall concluded

> ...at our present state of knowledge,...a code emphasis--one that combines control of words on spelling regularity, some direct teaching of letter-sound correspondences, as well as the use of writing, tracing or typing--produces better

> results with unselected groups of beginners than a meaning emphasis, the kind incorporated in most conventional basal-reading series used in schools in the late 1950's and early 1960's (pp. 178-79).

Because of the recent emphasis on code-type programs, more and more teachers are turning their attention to better understanding the relationships between the English writing system and the language it represents. It is logical that teachers of children who speak other languages and divergent dialects share this concern and interest. In the past decade, they have turned increasingly to linguists to provide insights into the nature of language teaching problems as well as possible solutions. In linguistics, too, they hope to find a better understanding of the language-based dimension of their total reading program.

Much of the recent interest in reading on the part of linguists stems from the work of Leonard Bloomfield (1942), but his ideas on reading never gained any significant degree of consideration for the field of reading itself except in the mid 1950's when many reading specialists felt obliged to defend their practices against the furor created by Rudolph Flesch's Why Johnny Can't Read. Others, such as Clarence Barnhart, Henry Lee Smith, Jr., Charles C. Fries, and Robert A. Hall, Jr., who are perhaps the legitimate heirs of Bloomfield's ideas, have since pursued a line closely related to that presented by their mentor some twenty-odd years before.

Actually, linguists today present a wide variety of attitudes toward particulars in the teaching of reading, and perhaps the last thing they could agree on would be the nature of a "linguistic method". Among Bloomfield's many points that proved controversial are the following:

1) His use of oral spelling of words received little support from linguists or "linguistic reading programs" which have been produced, with the exception of the Miami series.

2) The use of pictures in beginning reading material, which was considered to be superfluous or even detrimental by Bloomfield, was also avoided and condemned by Fries

and Hall. Illustrations were defended by Smith for their pedagogical value, however, and appear in his Linguistic-Science Readers, as well as in many other programs such as the SRA linguistic reading program, the i/t/a materials, the Miami series, the Palo Alto program, and the Sullivan Associates Programmed Reading.

3) The story line in beginning reading materials, considered to be relatively unimportant by Bloomfield, was given much more importance by Fries and Smith, and almost all of the other nationally marketed "linguistic reading programs."

4) A strong emphasis on early recognition of spelling patterns within whole words also characterizes "linguistic reading programs" as a group, following Bloomfield's insistence on a word level context rather than a segmented approach as found in "pre-linguistic" phonics programs. A single exception is the Smith program, with its initial concern for a large sight vocabulary.

5) Other than Lloyd and Warfel (1956), few authors in applied linguistics gave attention to larger grammatical structures. None of the linguists prominent in their concern for reading, including Bloomfield, seemed to attach the significance to grammatical units that has been more recently expressed by Lefevre (1964) and Wardhaugh (1969) in theoretical discussions and by the Miami series in its practical applications.

6) Bloomfield's recommendation on the use of nonsense words and syllables, supported by Hall, gained little acceptance from other linguists and producers of programs.

7) Likewise, Bloomfield's rigid patterns and avoidance of "irregular spellings" in the early stages was considered too severe a constraint for most writers, especially those who placed greater concern on developing materials which would be interesting to read, and those who did not want children to develop a false sense of regularity in the English spelling system.

One of Bloomfield's premises which still enjoys overwhelming support is that the beginning reader goes through a process of vocalization or subvocalization, rather than directly to meaning. From this we may deduce that decoding--if not reading--in an alphabetic system such as

English is the process whereby the learner gets the same meaning from sequences of written symbols as he would from the oral language that sequence of written symbols represents. And of course all linguists share Bloomfield's insistence on a scientific approach to the English language and to the relationships that exist between the spoken language and its written counterpart.

Unfortunately, the newer views on the structure of English, as reflected by various schools of transformationists, have not yet filtered down to the level of practical application, and even common assumptions among linguists about the phoneme-grapheme correspondences have been questioned, as by Reed's theory of the linguon as the smallest linguistic unit (1966) and by Smith's postulation of the morphophone (1968). Even though linguistic information and theories accumulate faster than teachers and textbook writers can absorb and apply them, teachers of linguistically divergent children will need to make the same kind of effort to sift out relevant and practical elements from "linguistics applied to reading instruction," as they have done from "linguistics applied to language instruction" in the decade of the 1960's.

Learning to Read in the Home Language

The question of learning to read in the home language is a complex and controversial one which must be considered apart from the issues discussed here. However, perhaps a few comments might be in order. (See the report on the Navajo Reading Project elsewhere in this issue.) Learning to read English may be easier or more difficult for the American Indian children learning English as a second or third language, depending on whether or not they have had an opportunity to learn basic discrimination skills and left-to-right orientation as a result of first learning to read in a home language. Also relevant, of course, is their background in oral English: Have their aural-oral English experiences been sufficiently intensive, and have the syntactic, morphological, and lexical elements been related to the materials they will learn to read in the new language?

If the children have been so fortunate as to have been in a bilingual program and have carefully been introduced to basic concepts in shape discrimination and direction of

orientation, their English reading problems per se will be in large measure a transfer of basic skills which are already well on their way to mastery, and of learning the unique characteristics of the English writing system. These unique characteristics should not, of course, be underestimated in their complexity. Further, in discussions extolling the virtues of non-English speakers learning to read in a home language first, the matter of spelling interference is too rarely discussed. Yet the children who have learned to read in a language which has a high degree of one-to-one correspondences do have problems of spelling interference stemming from previously established habits of responding to Roman letters with sounds of the children's own language. These problems are minimal, however, when compared with the advantages of early vernacular success in the critical skills of reading.

Basic Premises

Many Indian children are faced with learning to read in English without prior experience in the language itself. Under such conditions the teacher must be, of course, a master of a wide range of skills in second language teaching, which have been discussed in earlier issues of this Newsletter. She must further be a master at keeping separate in her mind the problems which are linguistic in nature and those which are directly related to learning to decode--those which necessarily involve the children's interaction with written materials. Rojas has identified a number of basic considerations related to the teaching of reading to children who are learning English as a second language (1964). As may be seen, the premises have been strongly influenced by the ideas from linguistics discussed above.

> The non-English speaking child should be provided with oral practice on all of the items of vocabulary and structure which appear in the beginning reading materials.
>
> Materials for teaching the process of reading should sharply distinguish between those activities which contribute directly to the ability to convert graphic sequences into the vocal sequences they represent and those activities which are designed to promote growth in language and refine-

ment in the thinking processes.

Graphic sequences should be taught not as symbols of meaning but rather as representations of vocal sequences which symbolize meaning.

Beginning reading instruction should provide for recognition of sound-symbol correspondences and for recognition and use of the appropriate intonational patterns as part of helping the child learn to read by structures.

Readiness materials should not confuse readiness for school routines with readiness to deal with printed symbols.

Both the linguistically structured and the linguistically unstructured portions of the language arts program for the non-English-speaking child should provide for the development of the skills involved in the act of reading.

Controlled repetition of spelling patterns should be used to establish sound-symbol associations.

Norms for density and repetition in materials for non-English-speaking pupils should be based primarily on word wholes selected to establish sound-graphic symbol relationships, in order to take full advantage of the alphabetic nature of the English writing system.

Materials for non-English-speaking pupils should provide for practice for habit formation under appropriate motivation. The pupil should practice meaningful contexts with intent to learn.

Audience reading as a goal should be separated from oral reading as a teaching device. The non-English-speaking child should be provided with much oral reading as a part of his oral experience; the child should not be pressed to read silently but should be allowed to move freely into silent reading as he is able to do so.

Approaches to Reading for ESL and Speakers of Nonstandard English

In a sense, children who are offered the kinds of experience described above are no longer (from the point of view of beginning reading) non-speakers of English. Rather, they are speakers of a divergent dialect which stems from the interferences between their home language and the language they have acquired in school by the time they are ready to read. Various approaches to the teaching of reading can now be discussed in this context.

The language and reading problems of children who speak a divergent dialect of English represent an area of domestic concern where linguistics is only beginning to have an impact. Such an interest has blossomed as it relates to inner city black populations, but it has developed little in connection with other minority populations. In much the same way that statistics often force the problems of American Indians low on the agenda in discussions of the disadvantaged, the statistics of the larger Indian groups, such as the Navajo, sometimes overshadow the needs of children from numerous other tribes who are fewer in number but who are no less in need of special consideration when reviewing instructional problems. Such children, scattered widely in the several states, are frequently not speakers of any Indian language. On the contrary, they may be native speakers only of a non-standard dialect of English, and at best understand but do not speak the language of their grandparents. They share the problems but not the attention and resources afforded some other minority groups.

Children who speak a divergent English dialect are likely to find themselves approaching the task of learning to read in one of four linguistic frames of reference: (1) they are expected to learn to respond to a "primerese" variety of standard English as if they were speakers of the dialect of the school; (2) they are expected to respond to the textbook dialect by establishing direct correspondences between the book dialect and their own; (3) they are encouraged to "learn it like it is" and read and write in their own dialect; or (4) they are guided to learn only that part of the standard dialect they are going to read, by means of a second language approach modified to meet the demands of a situation in which a new dialect is the medium of instruction.

In the first linguistic setting, which is typical of programs where conventional basal readers are the texts employed, the children's efforts to grasp the concept that print is "talk written down" are inhibited as a result of the phonological and grammatical discrepancies between the children's dialect and the dialect of instruction. The learners under these circumstances are constantly faced with the difficult task of "double translation". They must first "translate" the print into "book talk", and then "translate" the "book talk" into their own dialect. If the children do not go through this "double translation" process, they must assume that large numbers of print marks have no relation to talk--that print is not really "talk written down".

One might argue, as does Wardhaugh,(p. 58) that writing is not just speech written down. Granted there are linguistic features which are not represented in writing. Granted there are dialectal variations in the sound-symbol correspondences established by standard speakers in different parts of the country, as well as those devised independently by speakers of divergent dialects. Decreasing the number of correspondences can only make matters worse, not better, for the child who must later relearn the standard correspondences. With this double translation approach in a school setting where the philosophy involves teaching a standard dialect and helping the children become bidialectal, opportunities for divergent speakers' success are generally reduced when conventional materials are the core of the reading program.

In the second linguistic setting, reflected in some recent approaches to teaching reading to speakers of divergent dialects, the learners are encouraged to respond to conventional materials using their own structural signals and creating an individual set of sound-symbol correspondences which match their divergent dialect. Thus the printed sequence <u>He sees me</u> could, under this approach and within a dialect setting which has no <u>s</u> endings on verbs, be read <u>He see me</u>. It follows then that <u>He saw me</u> might be read <u>He seen me</u>. Many teachers who would not accept this "reading" are quite capable of rewarding another child for context guessing when he reads <u>I saw a kitten</u> for <u>I saw a cat</u>. Under such rules of reading behavior, why should not the first child be rewarded for relating <u>saw</u> in book dialect to his own <u>seen</u>?

Unfortunately, proponents of this approach, such as Goodman (1965) and Shuy (1969), seem more motivated by protecting the children's dialect and postponing the teaching of a standard dialect than they are by helping the children learn to cope with conventional sound-symbol correspondences. Thus far, this approach has been suggested basically for black children with divergent dialects. The arguments offered by its proponents, if accepted by teachers of language and reading, would logically apply to all children learning to read, including standard speakers with "developmental problems", and speakers of "Spanglish" and other mixed dialects. A basic concern for many teachers considering this approach is the potential re-teaching that might be required as the children progress through the school program. A complementary question which might be asked is how many of such children do progress through the school program if every time they speak or read they are made to feel less than adequate?

In the third linguistic setting, which is typical of language experience approaches such as that developed by Van Allen (1967), the children have much the same "linguistic latitude" as in the second setting, in that beginning reading does not presuppose the acquisition of a standard dialect. Such a program draws heavily on the linguistic experience that each child brings to school, and is highly individualized. The teacher in such a setting is, however, faced with the problem of deciding how to record each child's idiolect using conventional orthography. If she is committed to teaching a standard dialect as part of the total language arts program, she must decide how much to edit the individual child's "talk written down" without destroying the home-made text which is supposed to help him learn that print is "talk written down" without destroying the guarantee of initial successful experience with reading. Or if she does not edit the child's text, how does she reconcile the differences in dialects when she moves to standard dialect activities?

The problems in this setting are further increased by emphasis on written material which because of its individualized nature fails to guide the children to an economical and systematic acquisition of decoding skills. The language experience approach is, nonetheless, compatible with other programs which do focus on systematic

decoding and which are often lacking the personalized dimensions of the language experience approach. The fact that pupil-written books and personal experience stories honestly recorded have problems inherent in them does not mean that they are out of place in the reading class and in the broader language arts program which is carried on throughout the day. On the contrary, the basic practices of a language experience approach are a critical part of any well-rounded reading and language program, and they are even more important for linguistically divergent children who find the school environment so alien to their background.

In the fourth linguistic setting, the teacher systematically guides the children in their aural-oral learning of the standard dialect as they need it to approach this new dialect in its printed form. In situations where a basal program is coupled with a second language approach, the children will have difficulty in establishing a "match" between the dialect of the book and the more natural oral language they are developing. They will have to make their own "translations" as do native speakers of the standard dialect, but they must do it with a limited foundation in the new dialect. Otherwise, the teacher will have to establish as oral habits the particular constructions of the text, which are grammatically possible but frequently less probable for the situations presented in the reading material.

In situations where a language experience approach is coupled with a second language approach, the children are not faced with the "translation" problem but they are still lacking a systematic attack on decoding skills unless the second language approach is complemented by reading experiences in which the grammatical structures as well as the sound-symbol correspondences are closely controlled. With such controls in her materials, the teacher ensures adequate control over the oral language which is prerequisite to efficient decoding of the dialect of instruction, and thus minimizes the difficulties which would otherwise arise from the phonological and grammatical differences between the home and school dialects. The careful selection of words and structures through contrastive analysis for their linguistic value as well as their graphemic value and the application of techniques new to the teaching of the standard dialect and "vernacular" reading are among the factors which help to establish

the relevance of a second language approach to the language and reading problems of children who begin their school experience speaking a divergent dialect.

The children under discussion in this portion of the paper, as mentioned or implied repeatedly, are children who for all intents and purposes are monolingual speakers of some English dialect. Being an Indian child at a time when "color" power--black, brown, and red--are justifiably trying to establish their own identity may help create conditions under which cultural romanticists try to push children into slots where they do not belong--or at least do not fit. When a dialect of the school language exhibits greater communication power for the individual child, not only in the school setting but also in his peer and family relationships, it is reasonable to question the wisdom of forcing such a child to follow the circumventive route to reading of (1) mastering the home language over which he has poor control and rarely, if ever, uses; (2) learning to read in the home language; (3) returning to further develop his dominant language, which is a dialect of the school language, and finally, (4) learning to read in English. The role each language plays in a bicultural-bilingual school program should not be determined by color, surname, or cheekbones. If we honestly believe we should "take the child where he is" when he comes to school, we should be equally willing to honestly define "where he is".

Bibliography

Betts, Emmett A. Foundations of Reading Instruction, American Book, New York, 1946.

Bloomfield, Leonard. "Linguistics and Reading," Elementary English Review, Vol. XIX, 1942, pp. 125-130, 183-186.

Chall, Jeanne S. Learning to Read: The Great Debate, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1967.

Flesch, Rudolph. Why Johnny Can't Read - And What You Can Do About It, Harpers and Brothers, New York, 1962.

Fries, Charles C. Linguistics and Reading, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1962.

Goodman, Kenneth S. "Dialect Barriers to Reading Comprehension," Elementary English, Vol. 42, No. 8, pp. 853-860, December, 1965.

Grey, William S. On Their Own in Reading, Scott, Foresman, Chicago, 1948.

Hall, Robert A., Jr. Sound and Spelling in English, Chilton, Philadelphia, 1961.

_____. Introductory Linguistics, Chilton, Philadelphia, 1964.

Lefevre, Carl A. Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1964.

Lloyd, Donald J. and Harry R. Warfel. American English in Its Cultural Setting, Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1956.

McKee, Paul. The Teaching of Reading in the Elementary School, Houghton Mifflin, New York, 1948.

Reed, David W. "A Theory of Language, Speech, and Writing," Highlights of the Pre-Convention Institutes, Institute VI, Linguistics and Reading, International Reading Association, 1966.

Rojas, Pauline, Ralph Robinett, Paul Bell, et al. Basic Premises and Corollaries Applicable to the Teaching and Learning of English as a Second Language, Dade County Board of Public Instruction, Miami, 1964.

Russell, David H. Children Learn to Read, Ginn, Boston, 1949.

Shuy, Roger. "A Linguistic Background for Developing Beginning Reading Materials for Black Children," Teaching Black Children to Read, Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C., 1969.

Smith, Henry Lee, Jr., English Morphophonics - Implications for the Teaching of Literacy, Monograph No. Ten, New York State English Council, Oneonta, New York, 1968.

Van Allen, Roach and Claryce Allen. Language Experiences In Reading, Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corp., Chicago, 1966.

Wardhaugh, Ronald C. Reading: A Linguistic Perspective, Harcourt, Brace, New York, 1969.

INFORMATION EXCHANGE

PROJECTS AND REPORTS

NAVAJO READING STUDY

A Navajo Reading Study, directed by Dr. Bernard Spolsky and supported by the Navajo Area Office of the BIA is currently underway at the University of New Mexico and the Navajo Reservation. The central concern of this promising project is to investigate "...the validity of the hypothesis that children can learn to read a second language with better results if they have received their introduction to the reading process through the medium of their native language."[1] This hypothesis has been suggested by a number of educators and linguists over the years, and is implicit in studies like those of Charles C. Fries which do not refer directly to bilingual situations. According to Fries, when a child learns to read in his native language he is learning to transfer from language signals which he has already learned, to using "...visual signs for the same signals." At this crucial 'transfer stage' ("learning to respond rapidly to the graphic shapes ...and the signals they represent"), Fries says, the child should not be asked to master additional language signals as well.[2] Some of the arguments that have been advanced in favor of beginning reading in the mother tongue include the following assumptions: (1) that the child can be learning things in school in his own language while he learns English; (2) that he can read very early if he is taught in his first language; and (3) that the transfer of reading skills from one language to another is easily accomplished, especially in those cases where the languages use the same alphabet.

---

[1]Navajo Reading Study. Report No. 2. (See also, Nancy Modiano, "Reading Comprehension in the National Language: A Comprehensive Study of Bilingual and All-Spanish," unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, New York University, 1966.)

[2]Charles C. Fries, Linguistics and Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Wilson, 1962.

Before any actual evaluation can take place, a great deal of basic data must be collected. No comparisons will be valid, for example, unless it can be established that the teaching of reading in the mother tongue is done well. Effective teaching will depend in part on carefully planned materials, and these materials cannot be developed without extensive knowledge of the language itself and the extent of its use by the Navajo. The first four projects were planned to assess the language situation as it presently exists, collect materials already available, and find out the approaches presently being used in the schools where reading in Navajo is being taught, and to explore ways to develop effective reading materials in Navajo.

I. The Use of Navajo by the Child

As a first step in defining the actual language situation, the staff undertook a survey of teacher opinion. According to the teachers, between 80 and 90 percent of the children entering BIA schools spoke Navajo and only about 7% were able to understand a teacher speaking English. In the public schools surveyed, teachers felt that only about 40% of the Indian children knew enough English to do first grade work in English. The staff is aware that these figures are merely estimates and is planning eventually to assess the bias of the teachers by means of a validity study. It is aware, too, that more should be known about the direction of language change in the children; such information would need to be considered in any decision about how extensive a Navajo reading program should become. Meanwhile, howeve, this initial survey has clearly established the fact that Navajo is the language of most Navajo children beginning school, and that, therefore, initial reading in Navajo is a live option.

II. Available Materials

Another early project was the collection of available materials dealing with the Navajo language and culture. The materials that have been collected to date have been published in An Analytical Bibliography of Navajo Reading Materials, available on request by writing to Dr. Spolsky. This work includes both English language materials developed to teach Navajo children about their culture and Navajo language materials developed to promote literacy. The bibliography lists forty-three authors and has seventy-one

annotated entries. The authors, knowing that the present list is incomplete, encourage those consulting the bibliography to contribute additional items. The following sample entry indicates the annotation system:

Navajo Reading Materials No. 41

1. Author:	Son of Former Many Beads (Translated into English by Robert W. Young and William Morgan)
2. Title:	Navajo Historical Series I: The Ramah Navahos--T'ohchiní'ji Diné Kéédahat'ínii Baa Hane'
3. Prepared:	
4. Publisher:	
5. Date:	1967 6. Edition:
7. Available:	Publications Service, Haskell Institute, Lawrence, Kansas 66044
8. Price:	$. 10
9. Format:	17 pages, 8" x 5", soft cover
10. Description:	This series, written in Navajo and translated into English, is primarily for adults and tells of important events from the Navajo viewpoint.

III. Survey of Present Practices

To gather information about present practices in the teaching of reading in Navajo, Dr. Spolsky, staff linguist Paul Murphy, and Dr. Bruce Rigsby of the University of New Mexico Department of Anthropology, visited five schools on the reservation to interview reading teachers and establish contacts with resource people and administrators there. Later a conference on Initial Reading in Navajo was held at Kayenta with teachers from Rough Rock Demonstration School, Rock Point Boarding School, and Navajo Community College; members of the Navajo Reading Study staff; and consultants. The teachers reported on the reading approaches they were using (whether whole word, phonics, "linguistic," etc.) and discussed problems that have been encountered. A major concern of all those present was the lack of sufficient materials in Navajo. When available sources of material were exhausted, one teacher reported she had been forced to teach in English. As a result of this discussion, it was decided that one of the most urgent tasks of the Reading Study should be the rapid pro-

duction of preliminary materials in Navajo to serve until a reading program is developed, so that teachers would not have to shift to English prematurely. Plans are being made to develop some of these materials this summer.

IV. Planning the Reading Materials

Acting as reading consultant to the project is Dr. Richard Venezky, Associate Professor of Computer Sciences at the University of Wisconsin. In a meeting with Dr. Venezky, it was determined that the following four major areas would require intensive investigation before a sound basic reading program could be developed:

a) how Navajo is actually spoken by the appropriate age group...implications of articulatory development, word counts, dialectical variations, etc.,

b) how to test to determine visual discrimination, phonemic discrimination, articulatory development (motor skills), and general intelligence of the children to be used in the study,

c) how to evaluate the orthography to be used in the study (See report on Navajo Orthography elsewhere in this issue), and

d) how to determine the appropriate format and culturally appropriate content of the materials to be used in the study as well as an acceptable methodology for their use.[1]

Point a is a very crucial one. It says, in effect, that effective reading materials must be based on an adequate sample of the language actually used by the children. This "language sample" must provide a great deal of detailed linguistic information on several levels: It will be necessary to have answers to such questions as the functional load of the phonemes in the children's speech in order to prepare phonologically graded reading materials, to help determine the order of introduction of sounds, and to guide the choice of the writing system and spelling conventions

---

[1]Navajo Reading Study. Progress Report No. 1.

to be adopted. It will also be necessary to learn how much of the rather complex system of morphological processes in adult Navajo speech is developed and functional in children. (This last point constitutes a frank recognition of the fact that six-year-olds do not control the grammar of their own language in complete detail and that difficulty in initial reading may often be caused by grammatical content that is beyond the child's limited competence.) And finally, it will be necessary to know what words the Navajo child actually uses. Ideally, the children must be learning to read words they know, and should not be asked to deal with unfamiliar vocabulary during the "transfer stage."

In order to arrive at the most effective way to collect and analyze a language sample, a conference was held in December, 1969, that brought together the following consultants:

Mr. Kenneth Begishe, Shonto; Northwestern University
Professor Garland Bills, The University of New Mexico
Professor Kenneth Hale, Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Mr. William Morgan, Sr., Navajo Community College
Mr. Paul Platero, Navajo Community College
Professor Bruce Rigsby, The University of New Mexico
Professor Oswald Werner, Northwestern University
Mr. Robert Young, Albuquerque Area Office, BIA

At this time, a general plan was evolved for the collection of data on tapes and its subsequent analysis with the aid of a computer. As the analysis is completed, any details that appear to be missing can be filled in by individual interviews aimed at eliciting the specific items required.

The staff has already begun to collect taped materials, making use of a radio microphone to record a child's free speech. Dr. Werner has established an orthographic convention for the key punch transcription of the data, and a computer program is being prepared that will produce extensive lexical, grammatical, and phonological information.

One outcome of this program will be an extensive concordance which should be extremely useful to those involved in preparing the reading materials. Besides the more conventional vocabulary frequency lists, it will include such lists as: words with high tone, with long vowels, with nasal vowels, with given initial and final consonants.

This language sample will not only be of value in the preparation of reading materials, however. It will also aid in the development of readiness tests, revealing such linguistic factors as the comprehension and use of oral language, auditory discrimination, verbal concepts, as well as knowledge of numerical and quantitative relationships. It will also aid in the preparation of testing tools and in the modification of existing testing materials that have been geared to the middle-class English speaking child.

It will be interesting to watch the developments of the Navajo Reading Study as the language sample becomes extensive enough to be used as the base for the preparation of reading materials. The design of an adequate reading program will depend largely upon the cooperation of the teachers, reading experts, and the linguists who will be called upon to write it.

Once the staff is assured that initial reading is being efficiently taught in Navajo, it will be ready to move on to the second phase, in which the results of this teaching are compared with the results of teaching beginning reading in English. How long the materials must be in use before valid comparative studies can be made with programs using English for initial reading experience remains to be seen. Meanwhile, we can be sure that the amount of material available for reading in Navajo will be substantially increased, material which might eventually serve as the basis for the development of a complete Navajo curriculum in the first years of formal schooling.

REFERENCES

(From Navajo Reading Study, Report No. 2. Items duplicated in the Robinett bibliography have been omitted here.)

Barnhart, Clarence L. "Review of Linguistics and Reading," Language, Vol. 41 (1965), pp. 174-184.

Bloomfield, Leonard, and Barnhart, Clarence L. Let's Read. Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1961.

Bond, G. L., and Dykstra, R. "The Cooperative Research Program in First-Grade Reading Instruction," Reading Research Quarterly, Vol. 2, No. 4 (1967).

Brooks, Nelson. Language and Language Learning--Theory and Practice. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1964.

Carroll, John B. "Language Development," The Encyclopedia of Educational Research. (Chester W. Harris, ed.) New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960.

Hocker, Mary Elsa. "Reading Materials for Children Based on Their Language Patterns of Syntax, Vocabulary, and Interests." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Arizona, 1963.

Lefevre, Carl A. "Reading Instruction Related to Primary Language Learnings: A Linguistic View," The Journal of Developmental Reading, Vol. 4, No. 3 (1961).

Loban, Walter D. The Language of Elementary School Children. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963.

Menyuk, Paula. Sentences Children Use. Cambridge: The M.I.T. Press, 1969.

Modiano, Nancy. "Reading Comprehension in the National Language: A Comparative Study of Bilingual and All-Spanish." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1966.

Ohannessian, Sirarpi. The Study of the Problems of Teaching English to American Indians. Report prepared for the B.I.A. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1967.

O'Donnell, Roy C., et al. Syntax of Kindergarten and Elementary School Children: A Transformational Analysis. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1967.

Smith, Henry Lee, Jr. "Review of Let's Read," Language, Vol. 39 (1963), pp. 67-68.

Strickland, Ruth G. "The Language of Elementary School Children: Its Relationship to the Language of Reading Textbooks and the Quality of Reading of Selected Children," Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. 38, No. 4 (1962).

Venezky, R. L., et al. "Component Skills in Beginning Reading." Technical Report No. 60, Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning. Madison: The University of Wisconsin, 1968.

ESL PROGRAM EVALUATION ON THE NAVAJO

During the 1969-1970 academic year a team of four specialists will be visiting the schools on the Navajo Reservation in order to evaluate the effectiveness of their ESL programs. The four members of the team are James Alatis, Fred Bosco, Russell Campbell, and David Harris. In all, ten eastern and western area schools will be visited. Observation will be confined to grades 2, 4, and 8. The team will be divided into two groups, each group observing classes at least four times during the year. They will focus their attention on the following aspects of the school programs:

1. The effectiveness of the training and orientation that has been given the teachers.
2. The effectiveness of the Fries-Rojas materials. (These materials are presently being used in the schools that will be visited.)
3. The level of proficiency in English attained by the children in the program.
4. The awareness of the special needs and approaches of the ESL program in the school itself, that is, the coordination of ESL and other subjects.
5. The children's attitudes toward the specialized training in ESL they are presently receiving.

After the visits have been made, the team will send a report of its activities and a special list of recommendations to the Navajo Area Office in Window Rock. The evaluation is being carried out under a contract made by the Area Office with TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages).

A SURVEY OF THE READING PERFORMANCE OF THIRD GRADE CHILDREN IN UTAH PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Under the sponsorship of the Division of Research and Innovation, Utah State Office of Education, intensive data on the reading performance of four thousand Utah third-graders (15%) was collected during November and December of 1969. The survey sample was selected to represent each geographical section of Utah; urban and rural subgroups; high, middle and low socioeconomic levels; major ethnic groups (Black, Caucasian, Indian, and Spanish speakers); and male and female of each subgroup.

All children began with the Gates-MacGinite Reading Survey, a test of silent reading comprehension and vocabulary. Each classroom was then randomly divided into two groups, one of which answered oral questions designed to determine their reading habits and attitudes and read examples of non-school material (e.g., a caution label, instructions). The second group read aloud selected passages from the Durell Analysis of Reading Difficulty, which were subsequently scored for sixty-two specific reading-skill and language errors.

The data has been analyzed by a computer programmed to isolate information on each of the sub-groups, including cross-classifications, as well as to provide means and ranges for the total sample. That is, the Indian population can be compared with other ethnic groups and with the total sample; Indian boys with Indian girls; urban Indians with rural Indians; children from schools with a majority Indian population with those from schools with a token Indian population, and so forth.

Three important grammatical categories are among the items examined: verb endings, noun endings, and function words.

Details of the survey will be available in the final report to be released this spring by the Utah State Board of Education. (John E. Allen, Project Director)

BILINGUAL-BICULTURAL KINDERGARTEN PROJECT

A unique curriculum guide and sample teaching units are being developed for six Bilingual-Bicultural Kindergarten Project classrooms established on the Navajo Reservation in September of 1969. The Washington Office of the Bureau of Indian Affairs has piloted the project, and Dr. Muriel Saville of the English Department at Texas A and M is serving as a consultant. The objectives of the project are to implement a curriculum in which Navajo is the first language of instruction and English is taught as a second language.

Four content areas comprise the curriculum. These are communications, abstract concept development, environmental concepts, and relationships and creative expressions. Communication involves understanding and producing Navajo and English sounds: abstract concept development includes recognizing and naming geometric shapes, classifying objects, and recognizing likenesses or differences. The study of social and physical surroundings compose the section on environmental concepts; and relationships in science, health, and social studies are discussed.

Reading readiness activities, such as the development of auditory and visual discrimination skills, are designed to help prepare the children to begin reading in their native language before reading in English. A variety of games for discriminatory skills have been developed specifically for Navajo bilingual classes. (Mary E. Ross, Abraham Tucker, Navajo Area Office, Window Rock, Arizona)

NAVAJO ORTHOGRAPHY

In October of 1968, a planning conference was held to discuss the organization of Bilingual Kindergarten Program for Navajo children. One of the recommendations of that conference was that the BIA should adopt a uniform orthography for use in its schools. The need for uniformity was especially apparent in the new kindergarten program, which would require the preparation of materials written in Navajo--materials for the curriculum itself and for teacher training. To implement this recommendation, the Center for Applied Linguistics was commissioned to call together a group of twenty-five Indian educators, linguists, anthropologists, and literacy experts to consider the various writing conventions presently used for Navajo and choose one for use in the BIA educational system. The group met in Albuquerque on May 2 and 3, 1969.

In preparation for the meeting, materials were distributed in advance to the participants. These included: (1) brief statements by several consultants on the orthography they favored; (2) a conversion table by Oswald Werner of eight different writing conventions for Navajo; and (3) a paper by Sarah Gudschinsky setting forth the basic principles to be considered in constructing or revising a writing system. The system finally adopted was that of Young and Morgan, with minor modifications. A considerable amount of literature already exists in this alphabet, which has come to be known as the "Government System."

General policy considerations guiding the discussions and decision were: 1) The orthography in question was to be used to achieve uniformity in published texts of the BIA, and no attempt was being made to prescribe a system for private publication nor for handwriting. The hope was expressed, however, that the Navajo Tribal Council would consider the adoption of the same system in their programs, thus contributing to the realization of a standard alphabet for all publications in Navajo. 2) The needs of the native speaker of Navajo, as the principal user of the writing system, should take precedence over those of the non-native speaker. Fewer pronunciation guides would be needed by native speakers. 3) The orthography should be based on the facts of the Navajo language itself rather

than on the problems of transfer to and from the English system. Problems of transfer from the English spelling system into the reading and writing of Navajo appeared to be greater among adult Navajos than among children, 4) The orthography should reflect the phonemic structure of Navajo by having one symbol for one sound unit; and it should, if possible, maintain a uniform spelling where morphonemic processes resulted in changes in pronunciation. Regional dialect differences required some flexibility in spelling, although a few spelling conventions were agreed on. Carefully kept records and future informal psychological tests could be used to determine whether a more phonetic spelling made reading easier or not, and later dialect studies might indicate the possibility of further standardization.

The participants also considered some of the advantages to be gained by promoting literacy in Navajo. Among the advantages might be the following: 1) Further education through English would be easier and more meaningful if the educational potential of children were improved by reading initially in their own language. 2) Materials in Navajo could be developed for use as a medium of instruction beyond the elementary level and would also be useful in the training of teachers. 3) Tests prepared and administered in Navajo would have more validity than those translated from English. 4) Literacy at the adult level would be encouraged.

Adults who could read Navajo would then have access to practical information in such areas as agriculture, driver education, and medicare--subjects that would be immediately useful to them in their day-to-day living and their jobs. They would be helped to identify with their own culture through topics such as Navajo history; and they might become more involved in the education of their children. Also, literate adults would participate more efficiently in the affairs of their community. For these and other compelling reasons, participants urged the BIA to consider organizing a mass literacy project in their own language for adults.

From: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Conference on Navajo Orthography, Albuquerque, New Mexico, May 2-3, 1969; prepared by Sirarpi Ohannessian. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969.

BIA CURRICULUM BULLETIN NO. 6: TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF CHOCTAW, NAVAJO, AND PAPAGO

The Center for Applied Linguistics, under contract with the Bureau of Indian Affairs, has prepared contrastive studies of English with three American Indian languages: Choctaw, Navajo, and Papago. The studies are entirely practical in intent, aimed at providing direct help to the classroom teacher.

The Choctaw study, by Thurston Dale Nicklas, University of Kansas, confines itself to the comparison of sounds and grammar. The Navajo study, written by Dorothy A. Pedtke of the Center for Applied Linguistics in consultation with Oswald Werner of Northwestern University, includes information on cultural background and semantic interference as well as sections on phonology, morphology, and syntax. The Papago study, written by Sirarpi Ohannessian of the Center for Applied Linguistics, was based on a paper by Madeleine Mathiot of the State University of New York at Buffalo. All three studies give practice suggestions for classroom drills. (Copies may be obtained from the BIA in Washington.)

ERIC DOCUMENTS

A comprehensive source of information about new materials and developments in the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages may be found in Research in Education, a monthly publication of the Educational Resources Information Center (U.S. Office of Education). Most documents listed there are available through the ERIC system in either microfiche or hard copy; others must be requested through the author or publisher.

The ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics, (Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. Washington, D. C. 20036) has recently published a cumulative listing of all documents that have appeared in Research in Education in the TESOL field. The list includes items through December, 1969.

Available documents may be ordered by ED number in either microfiche or hard copy. Payment must accompany orders of less than $5.00, and there is a handling fee of $.50 for each order. Sales tax for your state must be included, or a 25% service charge for orders from outside the U.S. Address orders to:

ERIC Document Reproduction Service
The National Cash Register Company
4936 Fairmont Avenue
Bethesda, Maryland 20014

Subscriptions to Research in Education should be addressed to:

Superintendent of Documents
U. S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D. C. 20402

Yearly rates are $21.00 for domestic subscriptions and $26.25 for foreign subscriptions. A check or money order should accompany the order.

REVIEWS OF ARTICLES

SOME CONSIDERATIONS FOR DEVELOPING BEGINNING READING MATERIALS FOR GHETTO CHILDREN
by Roger W. Shuy

Teachers of reading to American Indian children may be interested in consulting the views of those scholars working most closely at the moment with teaching English to those who speak a dialect different from the standard to be found in the texts. One of these scholars is Dr. Roger Shuy, who is director of the Sociolinguistics Program at the Center for Applied Linguistics. In a short article in The Journal of Reading Behavior (Vol. I, No. 2, Spring, 1969), Dr. Shuy discusses some aspects of the development of beginning reading materials. While his examples are drawn from the speech of ghetto children, his general points are relevant to all situations in which dialect variations might occur.

One of Dr. Shuy's chief points is that some "supposed reading errors" occur because the children have the same underlying grammatical structures as those used in the reading text, but that the children realize the structures differently on the surface level of phonetic interpretation. For example, He is John's friend may be read aloud as He John friend, a structure with exactly the same meaning. Dr. Shuy points out three questions that might be asked about the grammatical content of the reading texts used by children who do not speak the standard dialect:

1. What kind and how much interference is caused by the absence of non-standard grammatical features in standard English texts?
2. What kind and how much interference is caused by syntactic variations between non-standard and standard English features?

Dr. Shuy concludes his article by a general comment on the grammatical content of reading texts:

> The problems of producing overcomplex or derived constructions, ambiguous readings and under-redundant material for standard English speaking readers has by no means been solved, but it is even multiplied for non-standard speaking children, who derivations, systematic ambiguities and redundancies have only begun to be observed, much less utilized in reading materials.

Two bibliographical references are included that would be of interest to the teacher of reading:

Shuy, Roger W. "Some Language and Cultural Differences in a Theory of Reading." (A paper presented at the 1968 International Reading Association Preconvention Institute on Psycholinguistics.)

Stewart, William A. "Foreign Language Teaching Methods in Quasi-Foreign Language Situations." Non-Standard Speech and the Teaching of English. (Edited by W. A. Stewart) Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1964, pp. 1-15.

SOME SOURCES OF READING PROBLEMS FOR NEGRO SPEAKERS OF NONSTANDARD ENGLISH
by William Labov

Dr. William Labov of Columbia University is another scholar who has worked intensively of late on social dialectology. Some of the implications of his work are discussed in this article on the teaching of reading to Black children. Although Dr. Labov, as well as Dr. Shuy, has been concerned more directly with a study of Black English, his findings also have direct application to other dialect situations. One of the critical points made by Dr. Labov in the article being reviewed is related to the establishment of priorities in the language program designed for beginners. His own scale of priorities is as follows:

a. Ability to understand spoken English (of the teacher).
b. Ability to read and comprehend.
c. Ability to communicate (to the teacher) in spoken English.
d. Ability to write in standard English grammar.
e. Ability to spell correctly.
f. Ability to use standard English grammar in speaking.
g. Ability to speak with a prestige pattern of pronunciation (and avoid stigmatized forms).

If his suggestions were followed, many teachers would be obliged to make changes in their approaches to reading. His insistence that ability to read and comprehend should take priority over ability to use the prestige pronunciation goes counter to procedures often recommended, in which oral language is developed first. It should be emphasized here that Dr. Labov is talking about <u>second dialect</u>, not second language. Were he considering second language situations, he would no doubt wish to consider a different order of priorities. (in <u>New Directions in Elementary English</u>, National Council of Teachers of English, pp. 140-167).

SOME LINGUISTIC INSIGHTS INTO READING INSTRUCTION

by Ronald C. Wardhaugh

A statement about the nature of the reading process is the main concern of the first section of this article. Reading is defined here as "information processing," or the process of reaction to external stimuli that is common to all living organisms. Any organism must learn to distinguish important signals in its environment from the unimportant ones and to interpret them as messages in some kind of code. Reading is simply a complicated integration of these information processing abilities.

When the child begins to read, he has already learned to use his senses to decode signals from his environment. Most of these signals are oral-aural in nature, but now he must learn to relate to these a new set of visual signals. The information processing thus involved in reading, especially in the early stages may break down in some places; failure to discriminate between letter shapes, misreading of letter or word sequences, difficulties with lexical items, etc.

Some of the tasks of a learner are: linking contrasting visual symbols to the contrasting acoustic symbols he already knows, learning to react only to the significant characteristics of these symbols, learning to expect the phonological, syntactic, and semantic frequencies of written language to differ from those of spoken language, and learning graphological frequencies. He must also be ready to develop new neuromuscular coordination in eye movements and to adapt to the varieties of linguistic performance that are not the same as those of speech.

For the reading process, a person takes to his task an intuitive knowledge of English structure, a motor and visual ability to process written symbols in a left-to-right manner, and an awareness of the subtle differences between speech and writing. Having come to terms with his environment, the individual may expect reading to have meaning that is related to his needs and interests --the kind of information he really wants to process. This may lead the reader to confine his reading to areas with which he is already familiar and in which he is already interested.

It would appear, then, that an important aspect of the teaching of reading is the luring of the reader into unknown areas and helping to expand his knowledge and interests.

This, however, is a pedagogical problem, not a linguistic one. Nevertheless, the linguist can contribute information that will help teachers do a better job of teaching children to read. Certain points emerge as factors that must be taken into account by researchers on the teaching of reading:

1. The linguistic competence of mature users of the language.
2. The linguistic competence of the children at different stages of language development--the child should be given credit for what he already intuitively knows about the language and for the fact that he has learned this by himself without having been taught.
3. Descriptions of the deep structure, semantic content, and phonology of each sentence--to show that understanding must take place at the deep structure level.
4. An account of the way symbols are used to represent linguistic structures--that writing may be a direct manifestation of level of a deep structure that ignores any phonological representation.
5. An explanation of the semantic structures of English--the relationship between semantics and syntactics.
6. Descriptions of dialect variations and the notion of a standard written language.

A linguist may offer these insights; but decisions about how these insights are to be used in the teachings of reading are pedagogical, not linguistic, and must be based on other kinds of information as well as on linguistic information. Dr. Wardhaugh concludes with the statement that

> the linguist may be qualified to contribute a linguistic <u>perspective</u> to the teaching of reading, but he cannot set out a linguistic <u>method</u> for teaching reading, because there can be no such method.

(Chapter 4 of <u>A Linguistic Perspective</u>. Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1969).

LINGUISTIC-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND AMERICAN EDUCATION
edited by A. C. Aarons, B. Y. Gordon, and W. A. Stewart

This special anthology issue of the Florida Foreign Language Reporter (Spring-Summer, 1969, Vol. 7, No. 1) was prepared to help fill the need for a sourcebook for workers in the field of minority-group education. It is a collection of forty-three readings and one book review, intended primarily for educators in schools with bilingual or bicultural situations; it will, however, be useful also to the linguist, psychologist, anthropologist, or sociologist engaged in pedagogical research on children with a minority ethnic background. Some of the articles are written especially for this anthology, and some are reprints of articles originally published elsewhere, but all are directed toward a new point of view that has emerged recently in American education.

This point of view suggests that it is not enough to consider each child as a unique individual and assume that this will deal with all the differences in school populations. Successes or failures in school seem largely to be "clumped" according to ethnic or social groups, and many social scientists claim that this is due in a significant measure to differences between the language and culture of the child and the language and culture of the school. While this is fairly obvious in the case of those from non-assimilated minorities, it has not been so easily recognized in the case of "groups which have manifested overt evidence of assimilation to Anglo-Saxon norms." This seems to be true not only of Blacks, Mexican-Americans, and American Indians, but of other groups as well--which are also represented in the anthology.

This viewpoint also recognizes the fact that a child who communicates at home but who comes to school with little or no English does not need to learn "how to speak a language, but how to speak another language." A distinction is then made between teaching English as a second dialect and teaching it as a second language.

Articles of a highly technical nature have not been included, so that besides the primary users of this anthology, any one concerned with childhood education will find much of value to him from the standpoint of "linguistic and cultural differences and American education."

MATERIALS

PROGRAMMED READING

Programmed Reading consists of twenty-one programmed texts, arranged in three series of seven books each. In addition, the following supplementary materials are available: filmstrips; five sets of graded storybooks for use in conjunction with Series I and II; sets of masters for spirit-duplicator exercises for Series I and II; alphabet cards and word cards; and a set of teacher's materials which add sound-symbol cards, alphabet charts, and Teacher's Guides to the above. The materials list which accompanies the series includes both basic and supplementary items designed to direct the student at his own pace through the early stages of reading instruction.

Readiness skills required of children approaching Series I include: knowledge of the letter names of a, i, m, p, t, n, o, and I; the ability to print them; reading and spelling of twenty words; the concepts of sentence and terminal punctuation; the concept of sounds represented by letters; and the ability to answer "yes" or "no" to a written question, to choose the correct word to complete a sentence, and to fill in letters missing from words. If a child is lacking any of these skills, the teacher is referred to the Prereading Program, a three-stage program designed to teach these skills and to acquaint the child with the format of the Series.

The Teacher's Guides to each series of the regular program contain a content summary of each book in that series, a listing of vocabulary and sound-symbol relationships by page, lesson plans, introductory and review exercises, instructions for tests and remediation, discussion questions for the storybooks, and suggestions for supplements. The instructions to the teacher are complete and explicit, though as the children progress to individualized study, instructions are abbreviated. In every case, however, new information is introduced by the teacher, who presents it, discusses it, gives the students some verbal and written (at the blackboard) practice, then returns them to their books for independent work. At the end of a unit, moreover, the teacher reviews much of the material.

Book I of Series I is teacher-administered; that is, the

teacher conducts the children through the book, following the "script" provided in the Teacher's Guide. The Guide cautions the teacher to present all of the information in the order given, but encourages her to expand the material and adopt a relaxed attitude which word-by-word adherence to the script may preclude. The responses expected from the children are minimal, usually a letter name, or "yes" or "no".

For the native speaker of English, for whom the series was designed, such short responses are probably adequate, since he would have control of the underlying syntactic and phonological patterns before he entered school; he would also have his total environment in which to exercise his oral skills. Thus, there is no reason to believe that Programmed Reading, properly administered, would not prove successful to him. For speakers of other languages, however, the program must be supplemented in precisely those areas which are most automatic for native speakers. The paragraphs that follow outline some features of the program which, though appropriate for English-speaking children, are potential problem areas for ESL children. The ESL teacher must be on guard to supplement or adjust the program according to the needs of her pupils.

Instead of the one-word oral responses described above, for example, the teacher using this program with ESL pupils might consider requiring a patterned response, such as "it is an m"; "Yes, it is/he is"; or "No, it isn't/he isn't." In every possible case, the teacher would increase the opportunity for oral responses from the children, an opportunity not provided by the program.

Throughout the program, occasion for oral reading is minimal, although in the Series II and III Guides the teacher is instructed to provide such occasions. Also, the phonics skills, "sounding out" and blending, receive no attention, so that transfer to other reading situations is not assured. For each frame, the child is required to attend to one letter, never to the total sequence of letters or the blending of the sounds they represent. Sound-symbol relationships focus on individual items, such as "the first sound you hear in man."

Many of the key words contain final consonant clusters, which might cause difficulty for Indian Children. Early

in Series I, the child is confronted with a three-consonant final cluster in mints. The teacher must be certain that such a cluster is within the child's capabilities well before he encounters it in print. Such phonological considerations, in fact, should precede the Prereading Program, which includes ant as one of its first words.

The treatment of the -s of the plural is competent, though the teacher may wish to prolong the preliminary exercises. Also, rather than merely stating that a word can be changed "by adding the letter s," she should make reference to the specific grammatical change accomplished. The script calls for student discrimination of the /s/ and /z/ sounds, in response both to "Do you hear the sound /z/ at the end of cans?" and to "What sound do you hear at the end of pans?" She then asks, "Do you see a picture of one or two cats?" in this way introducing the concept of number. When the possessive form of nouns is introduced, special attention will need to be given to the /s/-/z/ variation.

A final group of suffixes, the /t-d-ɨd/ preterites, and the -es/ɨz/ noun plural and third person singular present verb, are also introduced in Series I. For teachers of Indian children, especially those who have problems with final clusters, advance preparation is necessary.

Preparation is also necessary for some of the function words used in the program. For example, before reading this and that, it must first be clearly established how they are used to suggest "near and not near."

In addition to specific linguistic matters, one should also consider the cultural content of the series. Before an item is introduced into the reading vocabulary, the teacher should ensure its inclusion in the child's oral vocabulary; for example, while nip and pin are phonologically simple, does he know what they mean? Is he familiar with anything like the bright purple safety pin in the text? Does he know about "letters" and "phones as means of communication? When the teacher asks about color, top or bottom, choosing, beginning-middle-end, is the child prepared to respond?

Series III, the highest of the program, includes, among

other things, some myths of Greece and Rome, complete with charts equating the deities of one culture to those of the other. An enterprising teacher could substitute for this series of the program an original series based on the myths and legends of the culture in question, following the basic format and sentence and vocabulary patterns. The program is not overwhelmingly culture-bound; but there are areas in which supplementation from the child's own cultural background would strengthen it.

The series is basically sound in its utilization of the learning principles of sequencing, gradation and reinforcement. But in ESL situations the reading program must be carefully dovetailed with the language program so that the child at no time encounters a sound, an affix, a function word, or a sentence pattern with which he has not had prior oral experience. If the reading teacher is not also the language teacher, the closest cooperation between them is essential if the program is to achieve its stated goals. (Programmed Reading, by Cynthia D. Buchanan. A Sullivan Associates Program from Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Copyright 1968.)

Diana M. Allen
University of Utah

MIAMI LINGUISTIC READERS

The Miami Linguistic Readers were originally planned as a reading and language program for Spanish-speaking children in Dade County (Miami), Florida; but as the program developed, the authors recognized the similarities between the child learning English as a second language and the child learning standard English as a second dialect. As a result, revisions were aimed at learners of standard English, whether the native language were another language or a nonstandard dialect of English.

The preface to the Teacher's Manuals explains the premises underlying this "program of organized, sequential materials." These are: that beginning materials should be interesting to children; that "materials should reflect the natural forms of children's language"; that children "must have aural-oral control of the materials they are expected to read"; that beginning materials should focus on the process rather than on the uses or reading; that sound-symbol relationships should be presented in patterns rather than as individual correspondences; that "grammatical structures as well as vocabulary items should be controlled"; that the child must learn to read by structures; that writing should reinforce listening, speaking, and reading; and that materials should be "selected and organized to provide success for the learner as he progresses." In addition, the teacher is instructed to extend the language experience of her pupils to other activities of the school day.

The materials list for the series includes: twenty-one pupils' books; seatwork books for the children, which provide writing activities and comprehension exercises for each of the pupils' books; two Big Books, consisting of large charts and exercises to integrate oral language and reading and to reinforce language practice; Teacher's Manuals which give detailed instructions for both oral and reading skills, as well as comprehension and discrimination practice; a set of structure cards (word, phrase and sentence strips) to reinforce patterns and structures from the reading and to provide additional practice in recognizing and using structures; eighteen hand puppets, one of each character in the first year books, which enable the teacher to create dramatic situations for eliciting a

variety of responses in a natural context; and a long-playing recording of the songs found in the early stories.

The materials are divided into "levels," with a "plateau" story following each three levels. The plateau stories contain little new material, since their primary function is to provide additional practice and reinforcement for patterns already learned.

The Teacher's Manual for Level 1-A (first level) devotes thirty-two pages to oral language development before the children receive their first book. Another twenty pages presents the first episode of the first book as a series of lessons emphasizing basic language and reading skills, along with seatwork book exercises, before the children begin reading independently. In other words, the children do not actually read the story until they have had thirty-seven lessons which emphasize oral response.

The first six levels include animal stories, with the characters from the six stories brought together for a camping trip in the plateau story. Levels 7 through 9 are adaptations of folk tales, and the remaining stories are realistic, dealing with the activities and aspirations of a variety of boys and girls. An interesting departure from traditional reading programs is found in the plateau story for levels 10-12, which concerns a Spanish-speaking family of migrant farm workers, whose mother addresses the main character, Carlos, only in Spanish. Further, during a fiesta, the characters dance to and sing "Cielito Lindo" in Spanish. The advantage of such material is that the language of the Spanish-speaking child is recognized as a valid means of communication in situations which require it, at the same time that English is presented as the appropriate language for other situations--such as speaking to the storekeeper and the crew leader.

The teacher is reminded at intervals of the importance of modeling the expected responses for the children and of adjusting the amount of modeling and repetition to the needs of her children. A fold-out back cover of the manual explains various modeling and response-elicitation techniques, including repetition of a model, signaling for response, and chain drilling. The first page of the accompanying seatwork book provides cutouts for a boy and a girl, which the children are instructed to mount on sticks, so that their oral responses can include speaking

in the person of another; that is, a meaningful context for repetition practice is developed: the child can say, "My name is Tony," regardless of his own name or sex, by holding up the appropriate cutout.

The oral language section (Readiness Unit) begins with the simple greeting, "Good Morning." Lesson 2 teaches the question, "What's your name?" and the short answer, "Diana Casey"' and it progresses quickly to a present progressive statement, "Miss Sims is talking." Thus, the earliest language practice is with material which can transfer immediately to situations outside the schoolroom.

The first book for the children uses the present progressive in natural sentences, rather than avoiding the -ing forms to make reading "easier." Adhering to their premises that the child must have aural-oral control of the material prior to reading it, and that the language of reading should reflect the natural forms of children's speech, the authors of the Miami Readers have avoided "Primerese" (as they call it) and have introduced the natural grammatical forms in oral situations well before the child encounters them in print.

The first of the crucial reading concepts, left-to-right progression, is introduced with pictures in Lesson 3 before any sound-symbol relationships have been presented. Counting, age, colors, and possession with have and has are drilled orally, with the aid of charts and drawing equipment, in this oral language unit. The children are also exposed to the concepts big/little, long/short, like/different, city/country, and house/apartment/farm as they learn to group objects and illustrations by categories. They also learn to distinguish the capital and small letters needed for their first story, and they develop the use of negative in sentences with don't and doesn't.

The pronunciation and meaning of this and that are practiced in statements ("This/that is a _____.") and questions ("What's this/that?") at the beginning of Level 1-A, well in advance of the sound-symbol correspondences of th in Level 1-B. The pupil is instructed to touch or hold the picture or object when he says, "This," and to point to, but not touch, when he says, "That". Thus, the difference in meaning between the two is emphasized as much as the difference in spelling and pronunciation.

The Teacher's Manual also provides auditory discrimination exercises, first with initial sounds and later with ending patterns of sounds. Still later, they distinguish between such pairs as Biff/beef, sit/seat, and pick/peek. Appendices to all Teacher's Manuals present sample pronunciation exercises, which progress from auditory discrimination to oral production of such pairs, as well as /s/ and /z/ varieties of inflectional endings.

Other suffixes presented in the series include -ing as the first, followed by the other verb suffixes (-s, -ed, -en), noun suffixes (-s, -es, -'s), adjective (-er, -est) and adverb (-ly), as well as a derivational suffix (-ness) and the contractions -'s, -'t, -'m, and -'ll, thus developing control not only of the grammatical endings, but also of the normal oral practice of English speakers.

Through Level 6, only the "short" values of the vowels are used, with the exception of function words, in which the vowels are generally "irregular" (the, a, to). With Level 7, however, the child encounters long vowels, diphthongs and vowel diagraphs, again in patterns so that the sound-symbol correspondences are repeated and reinforced. Among the charts in the Big Books are five which present the short vowels in various spelling patterns. For example, several words ending -an, -ad, -ab, -atch, and others comprise the short a chart.

Sentence patterns are presented on Big Book charts in the form of "pyramids," with an uninflected verb as the peak and each level adding an element until a complete sentence is produced:

sit
sitting
is sitting
Biff is sitting

The teacher is instructed to copy the chart on the chalkboard, reading each line as she does so; the children then repeat the lines, observing the intonation patterns modeled by the teacher. Thus, normal sentence contours are associated with the reading process, enabling the children ultimately to read by phrases rather than by words.

The seatwork books for the children require a variety of responses, including checking or circling the right answer from among two or three presented; filling in blanks; tracing, copying and drawing objects and letters; selecting the correct response from a numbered list and writing the number in a blank in the sentence; identifying the number of syllables in a word; and working crossword puzzles. On occasion, the child is also asked to identify the function of a word, as in the following example:

<u>Packed</u> tells	who did something
	what someone did
	how someone did something.

As with all reading programs, this series requires of the teacher a constant awareness of the needs of her own pupils. She may have to increase or decrease the emphasis given to any portion of the program, and she should have sufficient knowledge of the native language or dialect of her pupils to anticipate specific interference problems that may arise. (<u>Miami Linguistic Readers</u>. Ralph F. Robinett, Paul W. Bell, and Pauline M. Rojas. Raytheon Education Co. (D. C. Heath), 1970.)

Diana M. Allen
University of Utah

*Marge *she *eat

*are *two

had

*Dad

*sad

*mukluks *feet *glad

fish

wish

*dish

dishes

in + fish

*finish

wish smile make old

paper picture making cold

Alaskan Readers, Fun in the Village, Level Five, p. 6.

ALASKAN READER AND LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

The Alaskan Readers series, the core of a three-year experimental instructional system in reading and language development for pupils in an intercultural setting, is now being field-tested in Alaska. Designed primarily to help meet the specific needs of primary grade children in Alaskan schools, the program may also be adaptable to other intercultural environments. Hopefully, experiments will provide new information about the effectiveness of this kind of intercultural program--a program planned to "retain the native's pride in his own culture while introducing him to the world in which he now finds himself."

The scope of the program includes the four basic areas of a language arts curriculum--listening, speaking, reading, and writing. These are included in the subheading of each lesson, or Language Development Unit (LDU), and are usually subdivided to include spelling, handwriting, and creative writing. All skills are integrated into the context of the sequential introduction of the reading. For example, the sequence of sounds introduced is determined by the needs of the vocabulary, not by unrelated frequency lists. While the teacher is encouraged to expand or modify most of the activities to suit the needs of her particular class, she is warned at the same time to follow the step-by-step development of the reading sequence exactly. The sequence is set by a principle known as the Graphoneme Concept (Copyright by Virginia W. Jones, 1967).

The Graphoneme Concept is apparently unique to the Alaskan Readers and is an important factor in their development. The irregularity of the correspondence of grapheme to phoneme in English has long been a problem to teachers and a source of frustration and confusion to the child. The graphoneme (defined by the manuals as a "closed syllable which begins with a vowel and ends with a consonant, semivowel, or silent e") is a basic structural unit which provides stability in the phoneme-grapheme relationship. The open syllable is considered to be the chief source of pronunciation irregularities, and traditional patterns of syllablication are disregarded: Thus terminal, it is argued, is easier to read when divided as ter-min-al than when it is divided in the conventional way as ter-mi-nal.

Marge: "New mukluks!

Can I help you make them?"

Mother: "O.K., Marge.

You can help.

Let's look at your feet.

Your feet are too big for the old mukluks.

We will make a picture of your feet on this paper.

Then the new mukluks will be right."

Alaskan Readers, Fun in the Village, Level Five, p. 8.

At early levels, the teacher is advised to "teach stable words first and postpone irregularities until pupils have developed sufficient reading skill to adjust to the difference in word structures." For this reason, in teaching the graphoneme at, what should not be taught with cat, that, or fat. Similarly, food should not be taught with good and wood; nor should kite be taught with fight, because in this case two different graphonemes would be involved.

In the initial stage of decoding practice, the child is asked to underline the vowel and final consonant of a monosyllabic word such as run; later, he will encounter graphonemes closed by consonant clusters such as fast. The student is then expected to be able to use his skill with graphonemes to move quickly into independent recognition of new words by picking out the component graphonemes. For example, when if, her, and sent are known, the child is expected to decode different. Decoding pages precede each story, and most levels are arranged in three sections: at the top are the words the teacher must introduce; in the center are words for the child to decode, and at the bottom are words for review practice. (See sample pages.)

Another departure from customary procedures also appears in the first three levels. In order to ensure a successful reading experience, reading skills are taught before the child attempts to read a story. Story pages and workbook pages are included in the same text, to be followed by a separate storybook after the reading skills are acquired. In higher levels, in order to provide content for more extensive oral work, the story might be read first.

Since a large majority of the children for whom the series is written enter school speaking a variety of non-Standard English, it might well be asked what provisions have been made for the second dialect situation. In terms of language content, questions might be raised in three areas: vocabulary, grammar, and phonology.

1. Vocabulary. Great care is taken to make sure that words are used in contexts meaningful to the children, and that the illustrations depict the Alaskan environment. Also, teachers are reminded that the children have varying cultural and ethnic backgrounds and that they should adapt language experiences to their individual classes. It is

not clear, however, whether the words have been chosen from an actual language sample.

2. Grammar. The basis for selection and sequencing of the grammatical structures included in the readers is not explained in the notes for the teacher. Apparently the structures have been selected on the basis of their suitability to the graphoneme sequence of the system and the cultural content rather than on a knowledge of the structures actually controlled by the children or the need to present the main grammatical features of English in a systematic fashion. For example, can is taught as a noun but is used in the reading as a modal auxiliary. (In some contexts, by the way, the modal auxiliary can /kæn/ would be reduced to /kən/in natural speech.) One wonders if the child is to read the full form or is expected to produce the reduced form automatically. Also, ran appears in the graphoneme group in Level One, not because of any relationship with the known word run, but because it rhymes with can. If, as Fries and others have assumed, children learning to read should not be burdened with new grammatical structures, it must be assumed that the children control the concept of the past tense and understand the relationship between run and ran.

3. Phonology. The treatment of phonology is too vast a subject to be explored here. However, a few points of interest to the ESL teacher might be mentioned:

a) Recognition of sounds. The teacher must make sure that the children can hear and produce the sound being taught.

b) Word stress on syllables. In independent decoding exercises it appears to be assumed that the child will automatically stress the correct syllable, because no stress clues are given. The use of monosyllabic words as graphonemic clues to multisyllabic words gives this feature special emphasis.

c) Vowel reduction and variation in voicing. It is assumed that the child can reduce unstressed vowels as a native speaker can, automatically and without conscious thought. For example, can and has are given as clues to decode canvas. Here the child is expected to change the vowel /æ/ in has to /ə/ and the /z/ to an /s/, distinctions that are of little consequence to the native speaker, for

he would automatically provide the correct form for a familiar word.

In short, the Alaskan Readers assign to the teacher the responsibility for providing a great deal of extra information about phonology and grammar. That this is the case is indicated by the statement on page eleven of the Level One Manual that

> the experienced Alaskan rural teacher is, by far, more knowledgeable about the linguistic problems of Alaska's native children than is the author of this program of language development.

Additional features of the series are the ample provisions for individual growth in several directions: creative writing is encouraged early, with specific exercises being introduced into the workbooks in Level Four; there are open-ended stories to help promote critical thinking; and some pages are especially designed to aid the individual's expansion of the concepts of the lesson. Also, children may progress through the levels at different rates; and some materials are programmed so that a child may work independently of the teacher and check his own work. The teacher is thus released for individual instruction of children who require it.

Other portions of the materials are also prepared with the problems of the teacher in mind. A resource book, Reading and Language Development, is provided, which supplies myths, stories, and ideas for many of the activities outlined in the manuals. Supplementary instructional aids accompanying the system include alphabet strips with the vowels in red and the consonants in black, picture cards for teaching beginning sounds, rhyming cards, vocabulary cards, and individual sets of alphabet cards for the pupils.

There are two important larger supplements which accompany the instructional materials. One is a Holiday Book for the first level, containing stories of American holidays usually celebrated in Alaska. The second (yet to be developed) is a library of storybooks related to Alaskan culture. All the materials, in fact, are carefully based on Alaskan culture, geared to the Alaskan environment in content and illustration. Alaskan legends and tales, supplemented with legends and tales commonly used in American

classrooms, help to emphasize the Alaskan heritage and to promote the child's pride in his own culture.

Since this emphasis was the major goal of the series, along with preparation of the child for the world in which he will find himself a citizen, Levels Seven to Eleven are heavily weighted with social studies concepts. The overall content gradually moves away from the stories about village life to stories about city life in Alaska and about life in the "Outside," so that it becomes the chief objective of Level Eleven to make the child feel that he is a part of the broader culture of the Lower Forty-eight.

Further, Level Eleven is planned to prepare the child for a smooth transfer to the standard basal reader which will be used as the twelfth and final level of the program. Six of the basal readers most widely used in the United States are now being studied by computer to determine what concepts and vocabulary the child will need to know to ensure a successful transition. Those items which have not been taught already will be built into the content of Level Eleven as it is being constructed.

Field testing was started in the fall of 1968 with the first four levels and will continue through 1973. In the meantime, implementation is expected to begin in the summer of 1970 with their third teacher training workshop, followed that fall by the introduction of Levels One through Four in the schools. The next four levels will be introduced in 1971, and the final four in 1972.

Support for the project has come through the cooperation of the Alaskan Federation of Natives, the Bureau of Indian Affairs, the Alaska State Department of Education, the Alaska Rural School Project at the University of Alaska, and the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. (Materials are still being field tested and are not available for general distribution.)

Betty M. Madsen

READERS IN INDIAN LANGUAGES

THE CHEROKEE PRIMER

The Cherokee Primer has been used by the Carnegie Corporation Cross-Cultural Education Project of the University of Chicago as a social science research tool. Promotion of literacy was one of the techniques used by the project in its efforts to provide the Cherokee people with the means of coping with white institutions and mass media. The Primer gives the Cherokee a chance to learn outside the coercive environment of the school situation. It was not intended for use in the school classroom, nor for those who were already motivated to learn. Instead, it was for the casual and apathetic learners to help them discover that literacy is a useful skill.

The Primer was designed primarily for the use of native speakers who already could read some English and wanted to learn to read their native language. However, it is also used by those just learning to read either English or Cherokee. It is written in the orthography of Sequoyah's syllabary of eighty-five symbols. Those symbols with highest frequency are introduced first through the medium of words, sentences, and short texts along with cues to the phonetic values. The less frequently used symbols are reserved for later use with longer texts. The English translation which accompanies the Cherokee text accomplishes a two-way purpose. It helps those who read English in learning to read Cherokee, and it encourages the Cherokee reader to learn or improve skills in reading English. The content is a variety of short subjects of interest to the casual reader, and the illustrations supply incentive for reading about them. (Willard Walker. "An Experiment in Programmed Cross-Cultural Education: The Impact of the Cherokee Primer for the Cherokee Community and for the Behavioral Sciences." Unpublished.)

In his discussion of the project in the Florida Foreign Language Reporter (Vol. 7, No. 1), Sol Tax makes the following preliminary observations about the use of the Primer.

1) Though complete statistics are not available on

The Western Band of Cherokees <u>Cherokee Primer</u>, p. 54.

For the last 300 years, and maybe longer, the Cherokees have lived in small settlements scattered along creeks in wooded country. There have probably never been more than about sixty of these settlements, nor less than about thirty. Now, in the 1960's, there are about fifty of these communities in eastern Oklahoma. Each has a neighborhood church. Some people that believe in the old laws live near stompgrounds. About thirty Cherokee speaking families live in Stillwell, Oklahoma, and about one hundred more, right in Tahlequah. About 1800 families live in the country and in small towns in the area. The Cherokee area is about 100 miles long and 80 miles wide. Many other Cherokees live in big towns outside this area, like Muskogee, Tulsa, Ft. Smith, Southwest City, Dallas, Texas, Ft. Worth, and other places. These people often come home for important occasions.

About 30% of the Cherokees in these communities can read Cherokee. Around Kenwood and at Marble City, 83% of the Cherokee households have at least one person that can read Cherokee. Older people help children to read, but many Cherokees don't discover how useful it is to read and write Cherokee until they are 35 or 40 years old and are called upon to keep records and accounts for Cherokee organizations. In the old days people usually learned to read at the church or stompground, but nowadays a lot of this learning is done at home from someone in the family.

Sample pages from the Cherokee Primer

Cherokee Primer, p. 55.

ᎤᏕᎵᎬ ᎠᏁ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ

ᏦᎢᏥᏆ ᎾᏕᏗᏍ ᎠᏰ ᎢᎪᎯᎳᏫ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ ᎤᏍᏗᎢ ᏓᏂᏕᏧᏍᏂ ᎠᏰ ᏓᎾᏁᎳᏗᏍᏂᎢ ᏕᏂᏓᏴ ᎠᏰ ᎠᏙ ᏂᎡᎢ. ᏣᏓᎵᏍᎪ ᎠᏎ ᎢᏕ ᏕᎾᏓᏪᏂ ᎯᎠᎾ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ ᏓᏂᏁᏎᎢ, ᎠᏎᏃ ᎢᎪᎯᏓ ᏂᎡᎢ ᏦᏍᎪᎯ ᎠᏰ ᎤᎪᏕ ᏕᎾᏓᏪᏂᎢ. ᎪᎯᏃᎢᏴᏂᎩ ᎯᎩᏍᎪᎯ ᏕᎾᏓᏪᏕ ᎠᏰ ᏕᏂᏕᏤ ᎧᏎᎬ ᏗᏕ ᏥᏕᎳᏒᎻᎻ (Oklahoma) ᏂᎡᎢ. ᎯᎠᏃ ᏂᏕᏓ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ ᏓᏂᏁᏎᎢ ᎠᏰ ᏕᎾᏓᏪᎬ ᏧᏂᎳᏫᏍᏃᏃᏃ ᏕᎾᏓᏁᏣᎢ. ᎢᏕᏓᏃ ᎠᏁᏤ ᎤᏊᏗ ᏗᎧᏃᏣᏫᏍᏗ ᎤᏃᎯᏣ ᎯᏍᎩᎯ ᎯᏍᎪᎵᏰᎵ ᏕᏂᎳᏫᏍᏗ ᎤᏂᏁᏣᎢ ᏦᏂᏃᏣᎳᎩ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ ᎠᏰ ᎤᏂᏁᏣᎢ ᎤᏂᏁᏣᎢ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ ᎠᏁᏤᎢ. ᏂᏕᏓᏍ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ ᎠᏁᏤᎢ ᏍᎪᎯᏃᎢᏴᏂᎩ ᏣᏣᏅᏓ ᎤᏂᏁᏣᎢ ᏂᏕᏓᏍ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ ᎠᏁᏤᎢ ᎠᏰ ᏧᏍᏗ ᏕᏕᏓᏪ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ ᏣᏂᏁᏤᎢ. ᎢᏣᏅᏍ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ ᎤᏣᏂᏏ ᏧᎳᏫᏍᏗ ᏣᏂᏁᏤᎢ, ᏥᏕᎳᏒᎻᎻ ᎠᏰ ᎤᏂᏁᏣᎢ ᏕᏂᏕᏤ ᏕᏂᏕᏤᎢ, ᏣᏕᎵᏏ ᏧᏕᏪ, ᏕᎳᏫᏍᏗ ᎤᏂᏁᏣᎢ ᏕᏂᏕᏤ ᏕᏂᏕᏤᎢ ᏂᏁᏤᎢ. ᎢᏣᏅᏍ ᏥᏕᎳᏒᎻᎻ ᎤᏂᏁᏣᎢ ᏂᏁᏤᎢ.

ᎪᎯᏃᎢᏴᏂᎩ ᎾᏂᎬ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ ᎠᏎ ᏦᎢ ᎪᏂᏍᎦᏂᎩ ᏧᏂᎳᏫᏍᏗ ᏕᏂᏕᏤᎢ ᎤᏂᏁᏣᎢ ᏣᏂᏁᏤᎢ ᏕᏂᏕᏤᎢ ᏂᏁᏤ

how many people are reading the material which developed out of the project, it seems to be confirmed that a bi-lingual book is much more effective than a monolingual one.

2) Provided with a means of learning to read their own language, which involved the necessity to read English, the Cherokee of course learned both together where otherwise they would have learned neither.
3) Where the programmed Primer was successful, Cherokee did not learn from it on their own, but in defined social situations. (Fathers teaching their children, in churches, or in other institutions that provided continuing relationships between Cherokee and that were geared to the terms of their educational aspirations.

The Primer was distributed free of charge to speakers of Cherokee who requested it, but it is not available at the present time. The following sample pages are the most difficult--at the end of the reader.

HOPI

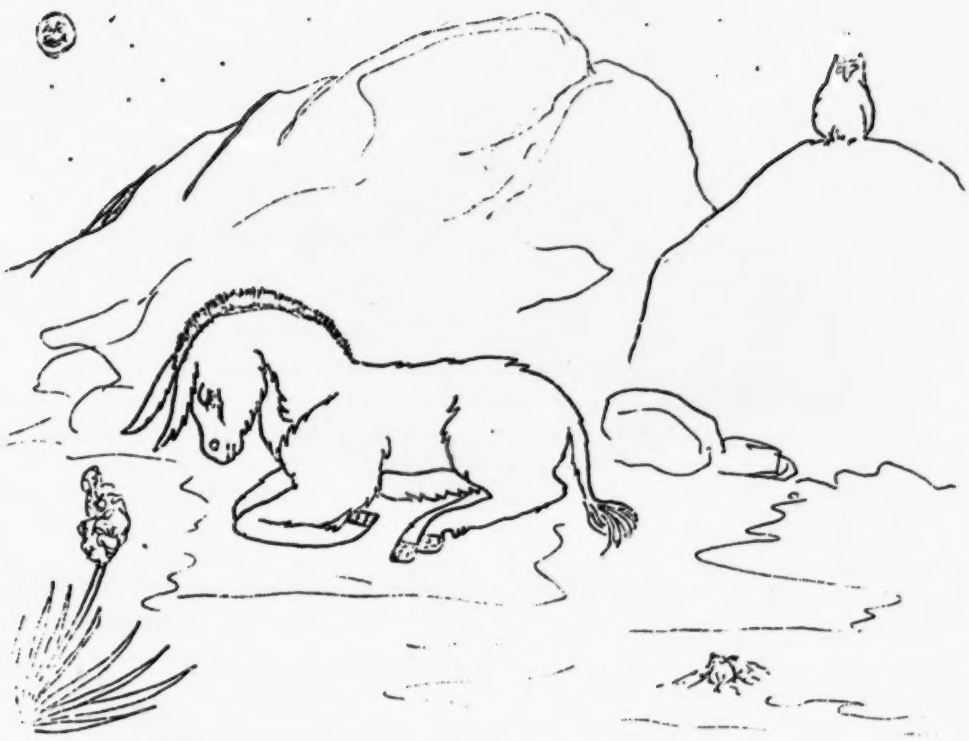
Bilingual reading materials for Hopi children are being developed at the Northern Arizona Supplementary Education Center, Northern Arizona University at Flagstaff. (See the Newsletter, Spring 1969, pp. 23-24.) When the materials are ready for use, the BIA Central Office will work with the Hopi Tribal Council and the Phoenix Area to develop a program in the Hopi schools.

The content of the program is based on legendary tales of animals, told somewhat in the manner of a fable. Each story is presented in a separate book with a brief text on each page telling about the action depicted by the large, cartoon-like illustration. The books are in pairs, identical except for the language of the text; one book uses Hopi, while the other uses the English version. The following samples are from the pair of books: Isaw Niq Pu Tutsvo / The Coyote and the Wren.

Hopi sample pages.

Pu' yaw pam nimakyang yaw tawit ang wu'wanma. Yaw pam Tutsvot akw itsivuti, "Pas piw qa inungem piw tawlawu. Yaw yan pam wuwa.

On the way home the coyote thought about the wren singing. The more the coyote thought about the wren refusing to sing for her, the angrier she became.



Binky is asleep.	Binky ɬhosh.
Is Binky asleep?	Ya' Binky ɬhosh née?
Yes, he's asleep.	Ha'aa, ɬhosh.
Is the owl asleep?	Ya' bú ɬhosh née?
No, it isn't asleep.	Dah, doo ɬhosh da.
It's awake.	Déz'ɨɨ.
Is the mouse asleep?	Ya' dlǫ́'istsǫǫsé ɬhosh née?
No, it isn't asleep.	Dah, doo ɬhosh da.
It's awake.	Déz'ɨɨ.

Sample pages from Binky.

THE APACHE READER

The Apache Reader was used in a curriculum program developed by Margaret McNevins, Curriculum Coordinator for the Whiteriver Public Schools, Whiteriver, Arizona, and Faith Hill, Linguist for Wycliffe Bible Translators, Inc. The program was developed in response to requests from the community for extension courses focusing on the Apache language and culture. The materials, therefore, are geared to adult education. Included in them are a brief classificatory list of Southwest Indian language groups, an extensive English-Apache word list which includes both Whiteriver and San Carlos dialects; a list of enclitics; an illustrated chart of Apache vowels and consonants; exercises using sounds, syllables, vocabulary, and grammar; flash cards; and a list of conversational sentences such as might be used at the store or with the doctor, and 150 other sentences on miscellaneous topics of everyday communication.

The Reader itself is entirely in Apache, with a brief glossary of "English Meanings of Words in the Reading Book." It is accompanied, however, by a book entitled Binky, which uses English sentences and their counterparts in Apache on the same page, together with descriptive illustrations. A sample page follows. (For more details, see ERIC Doc. No. ED 025757. "Curriculum Program for the Apache Language." Whiteriver Public Schools, Whiteriver, Arizona.)